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SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE ENGLISH POPULAR SCHOOLS.

THERE are many interesting comparisons between English and American schools. The two systems show certain similarities, for they have come from the same root and are sensitive, in greater or less degree, to modern life; but they also show some striking contrasts. One of the most interesting of these contrasts appears in the provisions of the two systems for anything beyond elementary education.

School sentiment in England is still very imperfectly developed. "We are not more than half in earnest as to education," said a prominent master; "half of us believe in it; half do not." The higher classes do not seem to be united in educational efforts for the masses. It is equally manifest that the masses are not fully interested for themselves, at least above a crude minimum of education; teachers in all quarters speak of this attitude. There are some who think that in the easier circumstances of recent years they are not so rampant in these matters as they were some years ago, when industrial conditions were harder. There is a strong tendency to withdraw pupils from school as soon as government requirements are satisfied. So little breadth of interest is manifested in education that parents in some cases take children from school the moment the given limit is reached, without regard to completeness of the work. One teacher told me that thirty-one pupils had left a single class during the year, and this was in a school possessed of one of the finest buildings that came to my notice, and situated in a district whose physical conditions apparently removed it far from the poorest. Like some day-laborers, when the hour has struck, the pupils dropped the scholastic shovel and attended to matters that appealed more to them or to their guardians. Again, school boards frequently adopt an attitude of indifference or skepticism, or are chary of the rates, so that school support lags

behind school needs; and parallel conditions may probably be found among church-school managers.

A phase of this school sentiment is seen also in the attitude toward technical education. There is a prejudice in certain quarters, on the part of employers, and particularly on the part of workmen, against the technically educated expert. The old apprentice system is better in their eyes. The principal of a new technical school in a great industrial center—a man who is acquainted with technical education in Europe and the United States—said that the apathy and indifference toward such training were “maddening.” Not all communities have this same attitude, but it is a condition to be reckoned with.

In consonance with this lack of interest in education is the impression, which one can hardly escape, that the view of education is largely utilitarian, and this naturally comes out in the aims of the teachers, as a sudden question reveals them to the visitor. More teachers speak of fitting pupils to fill their places than of developing character and forming for citizenship. The idea of education as a force working beyond rather narrow utilitarian ideals seems to find little popular recognition. In this whole discussion, however, it must be remembered that the terms of life in England are harder than here. The earnings of children are more generally an important factor in the family income. Not only may children be withdrawn early from school, but while attending school they are frequently employed during free hours, and sometimes at unseasonable hours, to add pence and shillings to the home funds. As the pressure is greater there than here, we see that the slow growth of educational sentiment may have at least some excuse. This same circumstance will account in part for the small amount of home work in connection with the popular schools. On the other hand, a prominent educator said to me that even where there is no money pressure people are glad to get children away from school. The main causes of indifference evidently lie deeper.

In view of these conditions it is not surprising that popular secondary education has had little development, notwithstanding the strong indorsement which the popular-school idea has

received in some quarters. Still there are not a few opportunities for such education. It has not been supported by the united sentiment of the country, but it has made a good beginning, and pupils of popular schools are taking advantage of it.

There are two forms of secondary education: (1) that which may be called private or aristocratic secondary education, which has grown out of the old cathedral and monastic schools, and traces its lineage back to the earliest times when secondary education was the only formal education given; (2) the secondary education which has sprung from simple forms and represents a growth from elementary foundations upward—the expanding and advancing force in education. From the first a large part of the population would be barred by the size of tuition fees. To the second pupils are admitted without charge, or on the payment of a merely nominal fee. The latter is the more recent development in secondary education. It is this form with which we are particularly concerned in speaking of the popular schools. A few words as to its evolution will be in place here.

Until very recently popular education in England has been an expression of church activity or of private benevolence. As a rule, it has been closely associated with the church. Early in the last century church schools were systematized somewhat by the formation of two societies—the National Society of the Established Church and the British Society representing the Dissenters. With the help of the monitorial system (the source of the present pupil-teacher system), their schools spread rapidly. These societies have been joined by others which have brought in their own series of schools. As a result of these movements there are now more than 14,000 church or “voluntary” schools in England and Wales, most of them connected with the Church of England. After 1833 they were supported by voluntary contributions, tuition fees, and government grants. In 1870, owing to the general inadequacy of existing school facilities, and in part perhaps to a desire for unsectarian education, new schools, known as “board schools,” came into existence and were established in large numbers where school accommodations were lacking. There are 5,797 of these schools now in operation.

They are managed by locally elected school boards, and are supported by taxes, fees, and grants. These schools therefore correspond more closely to our public schools. England has thus had two series of schools, and will continue to have them under the new bill, though there will be much greater unity in administration.

These popular schools have had a striking growth and have made marked progress in educational standards, but there are still great deficiencies. The "board schools" are by far the stronger of the two series. They have had the most favorable condition for growth, for they have invited and required more co-operation on the part of the school public. So progressive have they been that they have materially affected standards in some of the endowed schools.

In connection with these elementary schools a typical curriculum has been developed, which it is important to keep in mind as we proceed. It is this: religious instruction; English (including, reading, recitation, composition, and practical grammar); arithmetic; lessons (including object-lessons) on geography, history, and common things; drawing (for boys); needle-work (for girls); singing; physical training. Not all these subjects, however, are required either in all classes or in all schools. The only really obligatory or standard subjects seem to be reading, writing, and arithmetic. But all the studies mentioned have the force of the board's recommendation, and, as a matter of fact, are found quite generally in the schools. In many cases the curriculum is stronger than the official one.

But popular education can never be confined within elementary grades. So vigorous are its life-forces that it is bound to take on new functions and new meaning. English popular education has done this. It is significant that the English code not only outlines a typical elementary course, but suggests a long list of optional subjects from which the elementary course may draw as conditions warrant. Thus elementary schools add differentials to their simple program. But, aside from this, popular education has developed some new school forms, which in one degree or another have to do with secondary work, and

have already had such influence that they have excited some jealousy in the old secondary schools which had in a way pre-empted secondary ground.

These special forms we must now consider:

1. *The higher-grade elementary school, or higher-grade school, as it is called.*—A few specimen curricula will show much as to the nature of these schools, and will furnish an objective basis for description and criticism.

No. 1. Elementary course¹ plus algebra, botany, French, and advanced art work.

No. 2. Elementary course plus algebra, a little additional elementary science, a little French, and art work.

No. 3. Elementary course plus algebra, Euclid, French, Latin (for special calls), physics, chemistry, art work. Also a special scholarship class in which trigonometry is added and more advanced work is done in science and art.

No. 4. Elementary course plus algebra, French, Latin, English literature; shorthand; mensuration.

No. 5. Elementary course plus algebra, French, geometry.

No. 6. Elementary course plus algebra, mensuration.

Some of these secondary additions seem very meager, but it should be said that in the case of 4, 5, and 6 the school-group contains also a school of science which offers secondary subjects after standard VI or VII, and that most, if not all, of the schools represented in the list give opportunity for manual work and "housewifery."

It appears then that, if to an ordinary elementary curriculum are added certain so-called secondary subjects, varying in number from two or three to seven or eight, the sum may be a "higher grade" course, and is such if local ambition, supported by the authority or the board, so denominate it. The standard is therefore a very indefinite one. An elementary school which has added French and algebra, and gives special force to the work above the fourth standard (making itself perhaps a kind of "finishing school"), may be designated a higher-grade school. Another school under the same local board, doing equally creditable work and offering substantially the same subjects, may be called an elementary school only. The distinctive

¹See above. We might perhaps, for our purpose here, add drawing (as a general subject), and some elementary science.

character of the school appears to be determined by the work above the fourth standard. In fact, this part of the school is further distinguished sometimes by being organized as a separate school unit, while the lower standards are grouped into what is called the "junior" school.¹ Higher-grade elementary schools are rather common, but it is evident that they have no uniform significance as to secondary education. Some of them hardly need be considered in this connection. The few that have broader scope and are more definitely organized for their purpose, however, give pupils a decided taste of secondary work and leave them well on the way to a full secondary course.

2. *Higher elementary school.*—This is a new term in English school terminology. The school so designated is not, however, a really new one. It represents an attempt by the government to make a definite standard for, and bring system into, the higher grade schools. Certain requirements and conditions have therefore been established which must be fulfilled before a school can be accepted as a "higher elementary school."

1. Admission is granted only to qualified pupils who are at least ten years old. The course thus begins at the fifth standard.

2. Pupils are allowed to remain only till the close of the year in which they are fifteen.

3. The school must be organized and equipped to give a good four-year course of study approved by the central school authority. The teaching force must conform to special qualifications.

4. The number of pupils in a school must not exceed three hundred, and the number of pupils to a teacher is limited to forty in the first two years, and thirty in the last two.

¹ The English schools are organized in groups: (1) An infant school for children from three to six years old, divided into two or three classes according to conditions. (2) A school for older children, from six to fourteen. The sexes are regularly separated, particularly in schools for older pupils. When these latter schools are again divided into junior and senior departments, the school group may consist of six schools, each with its own quarters and its own staff of teachers. Finally there may be attached to the group several departments for manual work and housewifery, and a department for "defectives." The regular course for older pupils is divided into (7) standards, each representing a year's work. A given standard, however, must be reckoned as hardly equivalent to our grade of corresponding number. Frequently an ex-seventh standard is added for the benefit of those who can continue beyond the regular limit. Oftener, perhaps, a school offers nothing beyond the fifth or sixth standard.

The school is therefore more definitely and carefully organized, and extends its curriculum one year (in time) beyond the ordinary elementary program. It thus affords a more extensive course of study. A curriculum of one of these schools will give some idea of the work offered. It includes the basal elementary course and these secondary subjects: French, algebra, Euclid, trigonometry, theoretical and practical physics and chemistry, art, and manual work.

At present very few schools have been recognized as higher elementary schools. The *Blue-Book* of 1902 gives the number as ten, of which nine are connected with the board schools. The number of pupils on the registers for the first year's work is 999, for the second 927, for the third 935, and for the fourth 379. The falling off in that year of the course which represents the addition (in time) to the ordinary elementary course is thus very striking.

3. *The school of science.*—This school is the creation of the science and art department,¹ one of the co-ordinate departments of the board of education. It represents the nearest approach to our public high school. A few extracts from the regulations of the department will show something of its aim and scope:

A school of science must provide a thorough and progressive course of education in science combined with literary or commercial instruction, adapted to students whose education is such as would fit them to enter Standard VII of the English Code for a Public Elementary School.

[It does not, however, follow, that a school must admit students thus qualified. One school which I visited required the completion of the seventh standard for admission.]

¹ This department has to do more particularly with secondary education. Its work has been generously interpreted to include any secondary subject except Latin and Greek. In reality, however, it has had much to do with elementary education, in the line of science and art.

The department is interested in other schools besides the school of science. It is anxious to advance its subjects. It may be proper to say here that, while it is acknowledged that it has done good service for science, there is some complaint that it has made the work fragmentary. The various subjects under its patronage are promoted by means of grants. As the amount of grant-money which a school receives depends on the number of subjects taken, as well as on the quality of the work, there is a temptation to take a minimum amount of several subjects rather than a substantial amount of one.

Students whom the Inspector reports to be unfitted to benefit by the course, and students under twelve years of age unless specially allowed by the Inspector, must be excluded.

In a school of science every student upon whom the variable grant is claimed must be presented to the Inspector in the obligatory subjects of science and art, in at least one foreign language, and in such other subjects of instruction as have been approved in the time-table submitted to the Board. Not less than thirteen hours per week must be allotted to instruction in the obligatory science and art subjects. Not less than eight hours must be devoted to obligatory subjects other than mathematics. Not less than ten hours must be given to the other approved subjects which must include English subjects.

The attendance and variable grants are not payable for more than two years in the Elementary Course, or for more than four years in all on account of any one student. [The limit of the course is therefore fixed, but its length is indefinite.]

The "school of science" may thus extend its work two, three, or four years beyond the limit of the elementary school. The department outlines a minimum preliminary course in mathematics, science, and art, to which must be added the "literary and commercial" subjects already referred to. It also outlines advanced courses in physical science, mechanics, and biology from which a selection may be made by individual schools; but the line of work chosen for the second advanced year must be a continuation of the work of the first. There is thus considerable opportunity for specialization. Finally it arranges special courses suited for rural schools. Two or three specimen curricula will show the application of these recommendations to the schools.

No. 1. Mathematics; physics and chemistry (theoretical and practical); mechanics; manual instruction; commercial arithmetic; drawing (with design); French; bookkeeping; shorthand; English; housewifery; dress-making.¹

No. 2. English; arithmetic; geography; history; mathematics;² French; drawing; inorganic chemistry (theoretical and practical); mechanics; heat, magnetism, and electricity; practical plane and solid geometry; manual instruction; cookery.

¹ The studies are given here and in the following lists in the order in which they are named in the prospectus.

² Mathematics in this curriculum must be taken as referring to algebra. This appears to be a not uncommon interpretation of the term.

No. 3. The prospectus of this school gives a program arranged for three years. From information as to attendance given me at the school, however, I think that a four-year course is now offered.

First year: Scripture; practical plane and solid geometry; drawing; mathematics, including commercial arithmetic; elementary chemistry and physics (theoretical and practical); manual instruction; dressmaking; French or Latin; English; geography; bookkeeping; shorthand.

Second year: Scripture; practical plane and solid geometry; machine drawing; mathematics; theoretical mechanics; advanced magnetism and electricity (practical and theoretical); advanced chemistry (practical and theoretical); manual instruction, practical dressmaking; French or Latin; English; bookkeeping; shorthand.

Third year: Scripture; practical plane and solid geometry (advanced); mathematics; mechanics, solids and fluids (advanced); magnetism and electricity, theoretical and practical (advanced); sound, light, and heat (advanced); inorganic chemistry (theoretical and practical); Latin; English.

The present arrangements for science schools date from 1895, but the movement is much older. Scores of these schools have been established. They are not confined to the "board" and "voluntary" series, but may be attached to endowed schools which fulfil the conditions. They evidently afford a good opportunity for testing the educational persistence of the popular school pupils, so that figures as to attendance will be especially interesting here. In one of the schools the report was that about 35 per cent. of the pupils continue two years, 10 per cent. three years, and 10 per cent. four years. This school does not receive pupils till they have finished Standard VII, so that the third and fourth years represent so much advance (in time) beyond the elementary course. In a second school 50 per cent. of the pupils continue two years, and a very small percentage (perhaps 8 or 10 per cent.) take a third year. In this case, as pupils enter the science school from the sixth standard, the second and third years correspond to the first and second of the previous school. These figures are of course not conclusive, but in connection with other statistics they add cumulative evidence as to the point in question.

4. *The pupil-teacher center.*—This school, as its name indicates, has to do particularly with pupil-teachers, who spend part of their time in observing and assisting in the elementary schools,

and a part in study.¹ It offers a four-year course which affords training in elementary subjects and also prepares for the King's scholarship examination, or for this in connection with university matriculation.² Because of this latter alternative there must of course be some differentiation in part of the course. On passing the King's scholarship examination (which is the only end in view in most cases), students are qualified to enter a training college, or they may be accepted as assistant, or (in exceptional cases) as provisionally certificated, teachers. To meet the needs of such students the center must offer considerable secondary work. In fact, it has many elements of our public high-school course, as a specimen curriculum will show:

Arithmetic; algebra (to binomials); Euclid (four books); trigonometry (to solution of triangles); reading, recitation, composition, penmanship; English literature, including a "university extension" course; French and Latin (taken by all for two years; later pupils specialize according to the end in view); geography; school management; history; needlework; physiology and hygiene; physical geography; biology; elementary geology; theoretical and practical chemistry; music; "general knowledge."

But pupil-teacher centers vary. Not all give a program like the one just outlined, though that would probably give a fair idea of the course in many schools. Here is another curriculum from a center connected with a group of church schools: English, arithmetic, history, geography, method, music.

Because these centers minister to a special class, their relations are not as broad as those of others in the list. Again they are naturally confined to the larger communities, and, as the name would indicate, are not numerous, since each must supply a whole district. But, however limited their field, they claim a place in any enumeration of facilities for secondary education connected with the popular schools.

5. *The evening continuation school.*—At the beginning of their history "evening continuation schools" were evidently

¹The proportion varies. Sometimes their time is equally divided between the two occupations. Oftener, however, the larger part of the week must be given to school service. The government fixes the maximum time for this service at twenty hours per week, and many schools live faithfully up to this maximum. Sometimes pupil-teachers have no responsibility in the schools and are not entrusted with a regular class. Often, however, they are (in fact, though not in name) a regular part of the teaching force.

²University-admission requirements, however, are much less severe than with us. The contrast is a striking one.

intended for those who were deficient in elementary education. Today, however, they are to a large extent secondary institutions, and are open to all who are fourteen years of age and over and are not connected with a day school. They have had a large growth in the more thickly settled communities and now number more than 5,000. The London school board alone has 395 schools, while the Manchester board has more than 100. They are taught principally by teachers from the elementary day schools, who take this means of increasing their moderate stipends. By this means they probably secure a better teaching staff than might otherwise be possible, but they do it at the expense of the day schools, because of divided force and interest.

A few specimen curricula will show something as to the nature and scope of these schools. The first programs presented are those outlined for the London schools and have been selected so as to show certain curriculum types:

No. 1. Bookkeeping; commercial arithmetic; commercial geography; composition; drawing; French; shorthand; swimming; wood-work; (lantern lectures).

No. 2. Arithmetic (commercial and ordinary); bookkeeping; dress-cutting and -making; French; shorthand; writing; composition.

No. 3. Algebra; arithmetic; bookkeeping; business training; commercial arithmetic; commercial English and office routine; commercial geography; composition; English grammar; English literature; Euclid; French; German; Latin; mensuration; political economy; shorthand; typewriting.

No. 4. Algebra; arithmetic; art; bookkeeping; commercial correspondence and office routine; chemistry; civil-service subjects; commercial law; French; German; Latin; Portuguese; shorthand; Spanish; typewriting.

No. 5. Arithmetic; art; bookkeeping; botany; building construction; (elementary); commercial correspondence; commercial law; chemistry; composition; cookery; dresscutting and -making; English literature; first aid; French; geography; geometry; German; laundry work; machine construction (elementary); mathematics; physiology and hygiene; physics; political economy; metal-work; shorthand; typewriting; violin; wood-work and wood-carving; writing and *présis*.

Two classes of schools are here combined — “commercial” and “science and art.”¹

¹“Evening continuation schools” are classified as ordinary evening schools, commercial schools, science and art schools, schools for the deaf and special classes.

No. 6. Art; biology; botany; chemistry; dress-cutting; experimental science; first aid; geology; hygiene; mathematics; mechanics; metal-work; millinery; natural science; physiology; physiography; French; vocal music.

No. 7. Algebra; arithmetic; bookkeeping; civil-service class; chemistry (theoretical and practical); chemistry applied to photography; drawing; French; geography; geology; gymnastics; electricity (elementary); manual training; shorthand; vocal music; violin.

The following is the general list of studies offered by the Manchester school board in its largest series of evening schools, though only the elementary subjects are given in every school:

Reading (sometimes with recitation); writing; composition; arithmetic; English language; geography; history; civics; elementary chemistry; magnetism; bookkeeping; shorthand; drill; drawing; vocal music; domestic economy; needlework; knitting and mending course; cookery; dressmaking.

In a small series of schools the following studies are offered:

Physiography; physiology; hygiene (elementary and advanced); inorganic chemistry; magnetism and electricity; building construction (elementary and advanced; machine construction and drawing; steam (physics of the subject and practical applications); arithmetic; algebra; geometry; practical geometry (elementary and advanced); trigonometry; applied mechanics.¹

Another small series of schools offers these subjects:

Arithmetic; algebra; banking law and practice; bookkeeping and accountancy; business training and management; commercial English; commercial geography and history; commercial law; insurance; economics of commerce; handwriting and commercial correspondence; *précis*-writing and indexing; shorthand; typewriting; French; German; Danish; Italian; Latin; modern Greek; Portuguese; Spanish; Russian; civics; English literature and elocution; political and social economy.²

An examination of these curricula shows (1) that a good deal of secondary work, both theoretical and practical, is offered; (2) that the culture idea is far from prominent. This latter feature might readily be anticipated from the name and history of the school. In fact, it is consonant with the general spirit of the popular schools and the general attitude toward education.

6. Finally, for the sake of completeness, mention should be made of various technical schools and courses (under the county councils), which offer secondary work applied in a special field.

¹ Slight differences appear in the curricula of individual schools.

² One school offers practically the whole list or its equivalent; others offer generous selections.

These, then, are the schools which add to the popular school series certain elements of secondary education. The amount of secondary education varies from what we often find in our seventh and eighth grades to a four-year course of study.

From this more or less detailed description of the different schools I pass to some general features which are needed to show their nature and relations.

We have so long associated the idea of popular school and free school that at first one may be inclined to look for a similar association in other systems. This association does not hold in England, though there is an approximation to it. Fees have always played a part in the elementary schools. They have now, however, disappeared in most of the "board" schools, and they remain in only one-seventh of the "voluntary" schools. In the secondary form they may, possibly, not be found more generally, but they are higher, and, though perhaps not more than 6d. or 7d. per week, they suggest a condition to be considered.

But we are concerned with the *how* as well as with the *what* in these schools—with method of teaching as well as with curricula. And here one meets one of the most striking characteristics of English schools. The method of teaching is marvelously uniform. Briefly outlined, the plan is this: (1) oral presentation; (2) supplementary reading-books (also a sum-book in arithmetic and algebra, and a chart-book in geography); (3) reproductions in an exercise-book (books are corrected; sometimes there is a conference with the teacher); (4) questions on the subject at the next class period; (5) work done mostly in school (a little home work under favorable home conditions). Of course, there are variations in proportion and order, and even in elements; but this is the typical method, and in its essential features is found everywhere.

The oral-presentation method has great possibilities, but it may be doubted whether in English schools it is always objective and inductive. It certainly is not well supported by the supplementary use of books for training pupils in self-reliance and independent work. Books are scarce in English schools.

Reference-books are almost an unknown quantity. The pupils, therefore, depend mostly on the teacher. American schools have gone to one extreme in the matter of books, which, as used, have often been a most unpedagogical element in school method. English popular schools have gone to the other and, it must be confessed, less dangerous extreme. Inductive work followed by a pedagogical use of books promises the best results in presenting new topics; but inductive work is not a fixed quantity; it takes various forms according to age and individuality, for it adapts itself to all stages of development.

Now, this typical method which has been outlined above overflows into the secondary-school forms. There is this difference, however, that there is more tendency here to use text-books. Complaint as to the inability of higher-grade pupils to manage books emphasizes the deficiencies of the lower schools. It is probable, too, that the method is better employed in these schools because of higher average qualifications on the part of teachers. It may be noted also that in science, which is so common in higher-grade curricula, the elements of method are those we are familiar with in our schools, illustrative talk, individual experiment, and individual note-book work (really text-book making), though they do not always come in this order. This plan, however, is generally related to the one previously described.

The ordinary point of view in education, or rather the direction in education, would seem to be from the subject to the child—which reverses psychological order. Everything in popular education tends to make the subject dominant. In this connection reference should be made to the omnipresent examinations for scholarships and exhibitions,¹ which, while emphasizing quality, also emphasize subjects and amounts of subjects, and thus complicate method. It sometimes seems as though examinations in English schools were the sum and end of things. In the same line is the quest for grants, already mentioned.

Outside of the circle of the higher-grade schools, which have been described, lie the endowed secondary schools (both old

¹ See p. 17 for further reference.

and new)¹ for the middle classes. Some of these schools would undoubtedly be open to the popular-school pupils, for they wish patronage, and there is no strict class distinction in them; but they require tuition fees of five guineas and upward, and furthermore require time, which is equal to money, and is a most important factor with the common people. All but the most daring among the poorest classes would find these effectual barriers, while many of those in more comfortable circumstances already have a sufficient barrier in the general educational sentiment.

This brings me to the consideration of a final means for securing secondary education. It is not a school, but it makes school possible for a good many who would not otherwise be attracted. I refer to the numerous scholarships and exhibitions (or, in plain English, money prizes) which are won by examinations. They help pupils toward some of the education represented in some of the six schools described, and also to the fuller courses in the endowed schools. The process by which these ends are attained may be illustrated as follows: A boy in an elementary school wins a scholarship or exhibition which gives him means for going a little higher—say, to the full course of a higher-grade school, or a school of science. Here he wins another prize which takes him to some endowed secondary school for the middle classes where fees of five guineas or more are required. Here he may win a third scholarship, taking him to the university.

It may be of interest here to give a brief description of an endowed school which comes near to the common people, and hence might attract popular-school pupils whom ambition or "scholarship" or both urge on to higher attainments and higher

¹ In recent years various old endowments whose objects had become obsolete (and perhaps others which had been diverted from their main object) have been reorganized and put to work in more fruitful lines. One old endowment which came to my notice had originally been established for the purpose of buying the fagots with which to burn heretics. Another was given (in the form of land) in 1660, for supporting two scholars at a certain college, but it had grown out of all conceivable relation to its original object. The movement of reorganization has probably taken two forms: (1) increasing old endowments; (2) founding new schools. In this way secondary education has been materially advanced.

industrial efficiency. Such a school is the Central Foundation School of London, a five-guinea school. It was established at the time when the great cry arose as to the dearth of secondary education for the lower middle classes, but it draws from various classes. It receives boys between the ages of eight and seventeen, and prepares them for business, higher industrial or technical work, and the civil service, or for the university and polytechnic institute. In the division of the school we meet with a new term. What a "grade" is in our schools, or a "standard" in the "board" schools here goes under the name of "form." The school is apparently divided into six forms, but A's and B's and special forms raise the number to its first or second multiple, so that various individual conditions can be met, both as to rate of advancement and as to interest. The course seems to be a uniform one up to about the fifth form (or the adolescent age). Then the boys specialize by taking work leading to the special ends in view; it is thus a specialization in course rather than in studies. The regular curriculum is naturally a combination of elementary and secondary studies. It is as follows:

The ordinary curriculum offers reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, composition, literature, history, geography, mensuration, Euclid, algebra, mechanics, trigonometry, French, German, elementary and advanced chemistry and physics (theoretical and practical), drawing (various departments), bookkeeping, shorthand, drill and gymnastics, vocal music, manual training. In addition there are special classes in Latin, Greek, Hebrew, higher mathematics, science, etc., which make it possible to meet requirements not provided for in the regular curriculum. It is interesting to note that there is a "school of science" within this school which holds a position similar to that of the "school of science" which we found in connection with "board" and "voluntary" schools, though more liberty seems to be allowed in this case.

Other schools, like the old Manchester Grammar School, the new Hulme Grammar School, and the Manchester High School for Girls, deserve a word in this connection. They all prepare for the university, but the majority of their graduates apparently enter professional life, business life, etc., or take up technical work. They are all well equipped to give good secondary courses, and they give prominence to the "continuous presenta-

tion of great subjects." Their organization is similar to that of the Central Foundation School, though sometimes it is more elaborate and sometimes the age limits are higher.¹ Because of higher fees, which range from nine to fifteen guineas (\$47 to \$80), their relations to the popular schools cannot be intimate, and they claim consideration here only as possible training-ground for "scholarship" students.

Such, then, are the facilities for popular secondary education. Two deductions may here be made from this study:

1. The children of the English popular schools have, on the whole, but meager opportunities for secondary education. This state of things is further emphasized by the fact that a part of popular secondary education has been left without legal basis by the now famous "Cockerton decision," and is at present continued on sufferance. Again, what secondary education there is is plainly in a very unorganized state.

2. English children fail to make full use of such opportunities as they have. This is shown by the striking decrease in numbers in the years which mark the time-advance beyond the elementary course. Apathy in secondary education is apparent. This is one side of the picture. On the other side we should consider the fact that the aggregate number of pupils who are getting a taste of secondary education is large (though comparatively very small), and that interest in secondary education had power enough back of it to force a favorable amendment to the new bill. Secondary education is not to be a waning factor in English popular education.

Compare all these conditions with those which prevail in our states, where even the university is open to all who qualify themselves; and imagine the restiveness which the English situation would cause in communities of highly developed educational sentiment and of independent spirit. One need not go far among English boys and girls to find the pathos of the situation there.

From all that has been said it is evident that a selective prin-

¹ There seems to have been a tacit understanding that the newer schools should graduate students into the older. As this has not been faithfully carried out, jealousy has arisen between them.

ciple is operative in the English schools which form the subject of this article. It may be said, and is said, that it brings out the bright boys and gives scope for individual initiative. It does select the bright ones, but it does so with a vengeance. It punishes the many, while rewarding the few. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that in the selective process it brings out the strongest. I suspect the probability is that it does not. At any rate, it is a very narrow selective process and appropriates only a minimum of the nation's best, among the classes which we are considering. Any system of higher education is selective. Our own system of free education is eminently such. But it selects freely from the whole body of children and brings out a multitude of the best, instead of a few. This has its advantage, not merely through numbers, but through the greater versatility, wider interest, and larger power discovered in the numbers. It is true such a system brings into higher education some weak subjects, but it may do so with great advantage to the weak and to the community. There are always natural limits, but whenever a nation sets artificial limits to the growth of the individual it checks the growth of society and social feeling, and eventually reaches a static condition, or even retrogrades. England today faces a commercial and industrial situation which can be traced, at least in appreciable degree, to her educational organizations. She has not a sufficient body of trained experts to meet the emergency and build up the industries she is losing to two or three nations which have been training these experts. Happily the lines of education are not hard and fast in England. They will give way according to proverbial English logic in meeting pressing conditions.

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